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Manuscripts concerned with controversial issues are welcomed, with the express understanding that all such issues are published without editorial bias or discrimination.

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THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

MAY COVER

The Campus Quadrangle at Indiana State Teachers College. (Photograph furnished through the courtesy of the Office of Information Services).

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Some Implications of Trends in College Enrollment

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Colleges and universities are facing a period of rapid and large increases in enrollment. Conservative estimates indicate that undergraduate enrollments will double by 1970. This growth will tax all the facilities and resources of the colleges. The anticipated growth is due to: (1) increasing proportions of high school graduates entering college and (2) the increase in the college age population due to the high birth rates since 1945. At present the undergraduate enrollment in Indiana colleges and universities is approximately twenty-seven per cent of the **college age population**. It is expected that this percentage will exceed thirty per cent within the next five years and may eventually increase to thirty-five to forty per cent. The college age population in Indiana will increase nearly fifty per cent by 1965 and nearly eighty per cent by 1970.

At present in many school systems more than forty per cent of all high school graduates are entering college. In some high schools more than half of the graduates are now entering college. To maintain a college enrollment equal to thirty to thirty-five per cent of the college age population, nearly one-half of the high school graduates will have to enroll as freshmen. This means that the college-bound high school student constitutes the largest group with a single purpose in our high schools. The demand for persons with education and training beyond the high school in all professional and technical vocations far exceeds the supply of college graduates. There is every evidence that this demand will continue and at an accelerated rate. It is imperative that all youth who have ability be encouraged to continue their education beyond high school. It is also desirable that the high schools prepare as best they can these pupils for continuing their education in colleges and universi-

ties. In terms of the numbers involved and the importance of college and university education both to the individual and to society, preparation for college becomes a very important educational objective of the high school.

Undergraduate enrollments in colleges and universities in Indiana did not exceed ten per cent of the college age population prior to World War II. With a small percentage of high school graduates entering college, preparation for college was not a major problem of the high school. In many high schools a very small percentage of the high school graduating class entered college. As a result, a great deal of emphasis has been given to the development of curricula for other objectives such as vocational training, citizenship education, "life adjustment," etc. These objectives are all important and merit continued attention. It is evident, however, that preparation for college is becoming an increasingly important objective of the high school.

There is a large mortality in college students. Less than half of those who enter complete the requirements for a degree. Among the principal causes for drop-outs are: (1) lack of ability to pursue college studies; (2) lack of intellectual interest; (3) failure to adjust to the college environment; and (4) lack of financial resources. As the proportion of high school graduates entering college increases, it is apparent that larger numbers in the lower levels of ability will attempt college work. Students who do not have the ability or who are not well prepared for college work will have increasing difficulty to succeed in college. As enrollments increase, the colleges and universities will not be able to give adequate attention to the individual student. Students will have to be more self directive and assume an increasing responsibility for

their college work. They will also need better preparation in terms of study skills and knowledge basic to work in the various fields of study which they may select.

There is a great deal of disagreement as to the relative values of various kinds of subject matter preparation for college work. There are, however, a great many things which the high schools can do to prepare better their graduates for college. Among these are: (1) the development of intellectual interests; (2) the development of study skills; (3) more effective training in language usage and reading ability—many college freshmen have difficulty in these areas; (4) more emphasis on mathematics and the basic sciences both to develop interest in these fields and to provide basic knowledge; (5) more effective guidance in the selection of colleges and college programs; and (6) better selection of those to be admitted to college which is the joint responsibility of the high school and the college.

It is apparent that the colleges and the high schools have a mutual problem in this area. Whatever the high school can do to prepare better its graduates for college, the more successful the students will be in their college work. There is need to discover the best ways in which to prepare students for college work. The colleges and high schools need to work together in their guidance and counseling programs in order that students may select the fields of study best related to their interests and abilities. More effective methods for admission to college are necessary—first, to encourage our able youth to continue their education; and second, to eliminate as far as possible students who have little or no chance of success in college. We cannot afford to waste the resources of the college, the student's time, and the parent's money when

there is little chance of success. On the other hand, it is highly important to the individual and to society that talent and ability be developed to its highest level. The problem of the high school is first, to prepare those stu-

dents who are college-bound in the best ways possible to adjust to the college environment and requirements; and second, through guidance and counseling, assist the students in planning their college careers. With proper co-

operation between the high school and college a great deal can be done to improve the selection of college students, to prepare them better for their college work, and to increase their success in college programs.

Teacher Tenure in the Reorganized School Districts of Indiana

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The reorganization of school districts in Indiana is moving along a snail's pace under a wide variety of reorganization laws. These laws are all permissive, and some are fundamentally different from others.

At the close of 1955, there were about 85 reorganized school districts in Indiana, and at the time of this writing there are probably several more.¹ Better than 95 per cent of the reorganizations have taken place under laws enacted after 1933, the year of the basic change in the Indiana teacher tenure law. These figures do not include the number of joint-school corporations that have formed.

A Change in the Tenure Law

Indiana's first tenure law, enacted in 1927, made it possible for public school teachers to establish tenure. Each teacher was required to serve a five-year probationary period with one school corporation, and tenure was established when the sixth contract was signed.

In 1933, the tenure law was revised and teachers in township school corporations were unable thereafter to establish tenure. Section 1 of the 1933 law is quoted below:²

Any person who has served or who shall serve under contract as

a teacher in any school city corporation or in any school town corporation in the State of Indiana for five or more successive years, and who shall at anytime hereafter enter into a teacher's contract for further service with such corporations, shall thereupon become a permanent teacher of such school corporation. . . .

This section of the 1933 revision still holds. The application of it to reorganized school districts has constituted some legal problems, and all of them at this point have not been solved.

The Indiana Supreme Court Speaks

Two controversies involving tenure rights in reorganized school districts have reached the Indiana Supreme Court. Both cases are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Harris v. State ex rel. Allen, 212 Ind 386 (1937).—The school town of Odon and Madison School Township were operating their schools under authority of Chapter 148, Acts of 1917. This type of arrangement is called a joint-school corporation, because the two corporations did not lose their original identity as school corporations under the arrangement. Each corporation remained as a separate taxing unit. This is not an idle observation by a professor of education. It was clarified in an Indiana Supreme Court Case involving the consolidated School District of the School Town of Cambridge City and

Jackson School Township of Wayne County.³

This jointure was formed under the same law as the Odon-Madison Township jointure.

The controversy in the Harris Case arose when a teacher, Ray Allen, employed in the schools of Odon and Madison Township of Davies County thought he had established tenure there, and he was told that his contract would not be renewed for the 1935-36 school year. Allen had been employed in 1929 and had served five consecutive years when he entered into his sixth contract for the 1934-35 school year.

Upon appeal to the Indiana Supreme Court, the court held that Mr. Allen was a permanent teacher and that he should be reinstated in his teaching position.

The Supreme Court laid down two very important principles in the Harris Case which have not been overruled as yet. The principles are as follows:

1. Consolidated schools take on the form and character of town and city schools, because a township school is governed by a township trustee and the county superintendent. A city or town school is governed by a board of trustees and a superintendent.

2. The 1933 amendment to the teacher tenure act did not remove the limitation upon the powers of consolidated school boards in respect to the removal of tenure teachers. It only removed restrictions and limitations as applied to township schools controlled by a township trustee.

State ex rel. Tittle v. Covington Community Consolidated Schools, 229 Ind 208 (1951).—The school town of Covington merged with the school township

Ehle, Trustee v. State ex rel Wissler, 191 Ind 502 (1922), p. 509-10.

¹Hill, W.W., *The Case for Indiana School Reorganization*, Indiana State Chamber of Commerce, Indianapolis. January, 1957. p. 41.

²Chapter 97, Indiana Acts of 1927 as amended by chapter 116, Indiana Acts of 1933.

in which Covington was located to form a consolidated school unit. The merger took place under Chapter 123, Indiana Acts 1947, and both parent corporations lost their legal identity to the new consolidated school corporation. Miss Tittle had established tenure in one of the parent corporations under the 1927 tenure law.

After the merger became effective, she was refused a contract with the new corporation. Her case was taken to court, and on appeal to the Indiana Supreme Court, the court ruled that the new consolidated school corporation must honor her tenure rights. The court said in part:⁴

In Indiana, teacher tenure is based wholly on contract. This position is no longer open to question. It is also based upon the public policy of protecting the educational interests of the state. It should be liberally construed to effect its general purpose since it is legislation in which the public at large is interested.

Thus, the Tittle Case caused an important legal principle to be established. When school corporations merge to form a new school corporation, the assets and liabilities of the parent corporations are assumed by the newly formed corporation. This includes con-

⁴State ex rel. Tittle v. Covington Community Consolidated Schools, 229 Ind 208 (1951) p. 215.

tractual obligations as defined by the Indiana teacher tenure law.

Some Unsolved Problems

From the Harris and Tittle cases, three important legal principles concerning teacher tenure in reorganized school districts have been established.

1. School corporations governed by a school board and a superintendent take on the characteristics of a city or town school corporation.

2. The 1933 revision of the tenure law did not exclude consolidated corporations. It only excluded township corporations, when such were controlled by township trustees.

3. A teacher holding tenure rights with a school corporation that becomes a part of a newly consolidated unit is entitled to maintain tenure rights with the new corporation.

Now, let us consider some of the situations that are not clarified under the statutes or case law that exist in Indiana.

1. Under certain conditions in our state, a school township may be changed from control by a trustee to control by a board of education. Chapters 15 and 151 of the Acts of 1955, are examples of laws under which such a reorganization could take place. Would the principles from the two cases hold here?

2. In most of Indiana's reorganization laws, the powers of the board are

said to be the same as those of a city or town school corporation. Is this legislation by reference? In many states legislation by reference has been held to be unconstitutional.

3. Under Indiana law, it is possible for two or more townships to merge into a consolidated unit and the board could be made up of township trustees with the county superintendent serving as superintendent. Would case law established by the Harris Case hold here in regard to the application of the tenure law?

4. Does the application of the tenure law vary in reorganized districts depending upon the statute under which the reorganization takes place? An Indiana Attorney General's Opinion of 1947 indicates that it does.⁵

These are but a few of the tenure problems growing out of the reorganization of school districts in Indiana. Much could be done to remove such problems if the next legislature would amend the 1933 tenure law to include reorganized school corporations along with city and town school corporations. It would be much simpler to amend the tenure law than try to amend the various consolidation laws which we have on our books. Such an amendment to our tenure law could possibly save a great deal of litigation in the future.

⁵Indiana Attorney General's Opinions, 1947. pp. 214-225

The Fifth Year in Teacher Education

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A considerable amount of attention has been given recently to the improvement of the graduate instruction of teachers. Conferences on the fifth year in teacher education have been held at the local, state, and national levels. Graduate councils of the various teachers colleges and schools of education have devoted a good deal of time and effort in an attempt to strengthen

their graduate offerings. Individual graduate faculty members throughout the nation have become aware of the peculiar needs which teachers bring to the college or university classroom. It is the purpose of this article to examine what has been done in teacher education at the graduate level, and to suggest ways for the betterment of such instruction.

Growth of the Fifth Year Program

During the present century the population of our nation has doubled. In this same period the number of college degrees conferred has increased seventeen times.¹ An even greater growth has taken place in the granting of graduate degrees. At the master's level, the number of degrees increased from 1,583 in 1900 to 56,788 in 1954, or over thirty-seven times.² The fact that

¹William A. Jaraz, "Trends in Graduate Education," *Higher Education*, XI (February, 1955), 87-89.

²Ibid., p. 87.

the number of graduate degrees conferred has increased at a much faster rate than the total population appears to indicate that we have reached a period of extreme specialization. Furthermore, there seems to be every indication that the trend will continue, unless the nation should face a major war or emergency.

Teacher preparation. The level of preparation for teachers has been rising at a remarkable rate during the past twenty-five years. In a recent study by the National Education Association, it was found that for elementary teachers the master's degree level has risen from 0.6 percent in 1931 to 12.8 percent in 1956. The corresponding increase for secondary teachers was from 12.9 to 43.7 percent.³ The same report indicated that a large proportion of teachers are continuing college study while on the job.⁴ Certainly the evidence is very clear that a large part of the increase in attendance at graduate schools throughout the country may be attributed to this sudden movement upon the part of teachers to improve their level of preparation.

Special research project prompted by growth. The importance of the sudden growth of the fifth year program has been called to our attention by the Midwest Graduate Study and Research Foundation, which represents nearly one hundred graduate schools in the Midwest and West. This organization is initiating an exhaustive study on the academic adjustments to teacher and professional education at the graduate level. It is evident that the increased emphasis on graduate instruction for teachers has brought about the need for this study when one reads the following statement taken from the prospectus of the proposed project: In 1953-54, nearly 49% of all master's degrees awarded were in education, as compared to about 43% in 1952-53, and 41% in 1951-52. A similar increase is also evident at the doctoral level. In addition many public school personnel take degrees in some of the foregoing

professional curricula and in many disciplines other than education. Many more enroll in graduate courses without completing degree requirements. Summer session graduate enrollments are now made up predominately of public school staff members and such graduate summer enrollments are generally larger than for the academic year. Enrollments at the graduate level in part-time and extension course study during the academic year are larger than for graduate students registered on campus. These students are chiefly public school teachers and engineers obtaining additional education while holding full-time positions.

Members of the Midwest Conference on Graduate Study and Research have long felt the need for a thorough study and assembling of facts concerning the needs and demands of persons pursuing the many graduate professional programs which we now have, and which are increasing in number. There is, at present, no comprehensive study of this type to which institutions can turn for guidance in making decisions in reference to its current professional graduate training or the initiation of new programs of graduate study. Due to the overwhelming numbers of public school personnel pursuing graduate training, immediate attention would focus upon procedures and standards for training of teachers and administrators at the graduate level. It is evident that the patterns evolved for training in education can in large measure be employed for other types of professional training now developing in graduate schools.⁵

It is to be hoped that this study will help to solve some of the important problems which have been brought about through the rapid growth of the fifth year program.

Purposes of the Fifth Year Program

There are many conflicting points of view as to what constitutes an effective fifth year program for teachers. Nearly twenty years ago the American Association of Teachers Colleges agreed upon the following statement of purposes as

³National Education Association, *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXXV, No. 1 (Washington: NEA, February, 1957), p. 13.

⁴Ibid., p. 14.

part of its report on the minimum standards for graduate work:

. . . Graduate work in a teachers college should provide for one or more of the following purposes:

a. To continue study of the previously obtained undergraduate preparation for the purpose of supplementing phases already studied or of exploring new phases.

b. To provide a period for the concentrated study of the more strictly professional phases of a teacher's preparation for students whose undergraduate study did not provide for those phases.

c. To supply an opportunity to study another form of educational service—either as an addition to present work or to assist in changing to a different type of work.

d. To provide some training and experience in the field of educational research and in the more intensive specialization usually associated with it.⁶

Leys, in making a plea for a terminal master's degree, has suggested that we delineate the fifth year of higher education from the doctoral program. He is of the opinion that graduate faculties are apt to be quite critical of what master's degree students are accomplishing, but rather divided on any statement of positive goals.⁷ Leys was of the opinion that we should consider the master's degree program a fifth undergraduate year for the following reason:

. . . It seems to be generally agreed that the majority of graduate students are **not** becoming great scholars or creative scientists. It is **not** supposed to be feasible to prepare them for original and high-level research, the time-honored objective of the doctorate. It is **not** reasonable to expect every graduate and technical student to achieve the all-around competence of the ideal professional man (physician, scholar, engineer, administrator) who is capable of practicing his art without supervision.⁸

⁵American Association of Teachers Colleges, "Minimum Standards for Graduate Work Leading to the Master's Degree in Teacher Colleges," report adopted at the meeting of the American Association in Cleveland on February 25, 1939.

⁶Wayne A. R. Leys "The Terminal Master's degree," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXVI, (Summer, 1956), 233-40.

⁷Ibid., p. 233.

Charters, in discussing the professional and scientific objectives of graduate study in education, gave emphasis to the need for preparing people for maximum competency in their field of work.⁹ He summarized his point of view by saying that such professional study "...should make the student well informed, emotionally vigorous, and practically efficient."¹⁰

Perhaps the statement of purposes for the fifth year program which is more practical than any of those listed above is the one which was prepared by a special committee at the Fourth State-Wide Conference on the Fifth Year in Teacher Education, held on the campus of Indiana State Teachers College, July 20-22, 1955. The committee concluded that:

The fifth year program in teacher education must be flexible to meet the particular needs of the individual student taking into consideration his experience, interest, previous academic training. The goal is the development of the teacher as a professional person. Competent counseling and planning should provide a balance between general education, field of specialization and professional education as the end result of the total five year experience.¹¹

In order to attain such objectives, the committee suggested the following:

The design of the fifth year program should provide for:

- a. The opportunity to explore new fields.
- b. Continued study of fundamental problems in professional education especially the role of the school in society and the nature of human development.
- c. Emphasis upon continued growth in the teaching areas.¹²

Discernible Trends in Teacher Education at the Graduate Level

It would be absurd to draw up a list of generalizations covering all graduate

instruction for teachers. Teacher education programs vary a great deal from institution to institution, and some divergence exists within a single college or university. However, it would seem appropriate to list three general trends which appear to be involved in our effort to meet the needs of teachers at the fifth year level.

1. The curriculum of the fifth year is giving greater stress to the needs of the classroom teacher with less emphasis on the preparation of administrators and supervisors. In nearly every teachers college and school of education the graduate program in education started as a means of preparing teachers to become superintendents, principals, and supervisors. The emphasis seemed to be to "promote" the teacher by giving him an administrative or supervisory post. This movement came as a result of an attempt by teachers to improve their financial prestige levels. The end result was that many teachers obtained administrative certificates but were never given an opportunity to use them.

In the past few years there has been a nation-wide effort to improve the financial and prestige levels of the classroom teacher. This, together with the fact that administrative training is often of limited value to the teacher, has brought about a trend toward a graduate curriculum designed to improve the teacher's background, both in academic and professional areas.

An indication of this trend was discovered by Martin in a study of the major issues involved in the administration of graduate programs at the master's degree level. Upon making a survey of 233 colleges and universities, Martin concluded that the graduate directors favored some combination of specialized instruction in the student's teaching field(s), together with work in professional education.¹³

It should be noted that the trend toward the "master teacher" or "professional teacher" curriculum does not

necessarily indicate a weakening of the curricula for the preparation of administrators and supervisors. These curricula are still available for persons interested in this type of work, and a definite trend seems to be toward offering such work at the sixth year and doctoral levels.

2. The influx of school personnel into the graduate program has necessitated many administrative changes. McCulloch, in carrying out a special investigation for the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, visited ten campuses to study this problem. He discovered several factors which have brought about modifications in the administrative machinery of graduate schools, as a result of the influx of teachers:

A. Much of the work for teachers and administrators is being given in summer school, night school, and off-campus. The master's degree is no longer a degree earned on-campus during the regular academic year.

B. The thesis is being replaced by course work or by some type of substitute field study. Teachers and administrators are not interested in writing a thesis.

C. Teachers have asked exemption from maximum load limits and have often been permitted to hasten the earning of the master's degree.

D. Graduate courses enrolling teachers have of necessity been much like undergraduate courses. The pressure of numbers alone has made the small class with active student participation a thing of the past—especially in summer graduate courses. The teacher who is primarily interested in filling gaps in his education is not ready for the advanced level of instruction which some think the mark of the graduate course. As a result, the fifth year of education for teachers and administrators has become to a considerable degree an extension of the four-year college program.

E. Workshop courses have become a regular part of graduate instruction for teachers and administrators. This type of course offers the student a chance to capitalize on his own professional experience. It also gives students opportunity to seek answers to problems which have grown out of their professional experience.

F. While the requirement of pro-

⁹W. W. Charters, "Professional and Scientific Objectives of Graduate Study in Education," **Graduate Study in Education**, Fiftieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: NSSE, 1951), pp. 30-41.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, p. 31.

¹¹"Guiding Principles," **Teachers College Journal**, XXVII (October, 1955), p. 19.

¹²*Ibid.*

ficiency in a foreign language has remained in some master's programs, it has all but disappeared in programs for teachers and administrators.

G. The traditional requirement of an undergraduate B average, or its equivalent has been modified almost everywhere. Some master's degree programs require only the bachelor's degree for admission to graduate study. It is almost universal to require that those who are admitted to graduate study must later be admitted to candidacy for the degree. A variety of screening devices are used in admitting graduate students to candidacy for the master's degree. It is possible that those not capable of effective graduate work can be eliminated at this step if there is little selectivity at the time of admission to graduate school.¹⁴

In view of these trends it would seem imperative that each teachers college and school of education examine its administrative procedures, with a view of providing a more effective education for teachers and of maintaining high standards for graduate work.

3. There is an ever increasing demand that teachers colleges assist in providing teachers at the college level.

This need was expressed in a report by the Committee of Fifteen sponsored by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. This study was carried out in the fall of 1954 by a group of college and university teachers and adminis-

trators. The demand for college teachers was stated as follows:

Before our group met for the first time, we had exchanged memoranda on what seemed to each of us critical problems confronting graduate education. Our first meeting confirmed what we had already discovered through this exchange of memoranda: we shared the same basic concerns and the same fundamental apprehension. There was unanimous belief that:

1. graduate schools, in their efforts to advance the boundaries of knowledge by research, are at present not paying sufficient attention to a function they inherited by a natural historical process—that of providing effective training for college and high school teachers;

2. even the training in research often lacks the vitality necessary to produce humanely-educated men and women capable of providing the moral, intellectual, and political leadership which a free society needs if it is to survive;

3. since the "tidal wave" of students expected to flood our colleges in the near future will enforce a change of some kind, it is the responsibility of the graduate schools to see to it that this change will not create a chaos in which scholarship and scholarly teaching have become a mere memory;

4. if scholarly teaching is to survive in our colleges—and we believe that non-scholarly teaching simply isn't teaching—it should become the avowed purpose of graduate education to produce more people who are neither mere scholars nor unscholarly teachers, but scholar-teachers.¹⁵

¹⁴Robert W. McCulloch, "The Impact of Public School Teachers on Graduate Schools," pp. 26-27, *Proceedings of the Eleventh Annual Meeting of the Midwest Conference on Graduate Study and Research*, Chicago, March 21-22, 1955.

¹⁵F. W. Strothmann, *The Graduate School Today and Tomorrow* (New York: Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1955), pp. 3-4.

It is not entirely clear as to what role the teachers colleges can play in helping to solve this problem. However, it seems very important that we encourage our outstanding master's degree candidates to continue their graduate work and to enter the college teaching field. We have an obligation to provide such students with the background and experience needed for college teaching. A cooperative arrangement with the universities offering advanced work, whereby they would admit such students to advanced graduate study, would seem highly desirable.

The Challenge for the Future

The tremendous growth of graduate enrollments might appear to be solely the concern of the graduate councils and graduate faculties in the various colleges and universities of the nation. It is true that these persons should be vitally interested and that they must provide the leadership necessary for the improvement of graduate instruction. However, the graduate student, who is directly affected by graduate standards and policies has a part to play also. It will be his responsibility to make full use of the graduate facilities which are available in the colleges and universities. Such a combined effort on the part of the policy makers, instructors, and students will be necessary if we are to make the fifth year in teacher education a challenging one.

The Development of a Language Laboratory for More Effective Second Language Teaching

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So much improvement has been made in the teaching of languages by the use of various types of recorders and recordings that any institution conducting language instruction need not ignore the newer devices and methods. Spoken language of a useable quality,

as opposed to the reading ability type of language training, has come to the forefront as America and Americans face up to the problems of living in a global society. Methods whereby large numbers of students can hear a language, repeat it, or respond to it,

and then listen to their own pronunciation of the new words compared to the pronunciation of the words by a native, are producing students who can converse easily in a second language.

Teaching oral English quickly to large groups of people who come to our coun-

try for training or for visits points up the problem of oral language teaching in reverse. We often must teach English quickly to persons participating in exchange programs. During and after the recent Korean conflict large numbers of Koreans learned English and large numbers of Americans learned Korean, chiefly through the new tools of the language laboratories set up by the United States Army.

A language laboratory might be defined as a place or space where language fluency and accuracy might be acquired partly or wholly with the aid of electrical equipment such as record players or tape recorders and the use of records and tape recordings. Such a laboratory might be very simple, such as a room with a tape recorder and a record player which could be listened to by the students therein, or it might be fairly complex as the U.S. Army language installation in Korea where sixty (60) tape recorders are installed in booths and equipped with earphones and microphones for each student, with equipment and wiring so that

- (a) Students may listen to records,
- (b) Students may listen to tapes,
- (c) Students may respond and have their voices individually recorded on tapes,



Laboratory Assistant Prepares for Class Period

- (d) Students may talk to or listen to the instructor singly or collectively,
- (e) Students may watch slides, filmstrips, motion picture films, and listen to verbal accompaniments.

The greatest advance in language laboratory technique comes from the development of a dual-track tape recorder which can carry a tape with statements, questions, or conversation

in a language spoken by an instructor or a native on one track of the dual-track tape. Spaces or pauses are left so that the student may respond on the student's track of the dual-track tape through his microphone and have his responses recorded. Either the student or the instructor may "play back" the tape and compare the correct pronunciations and enunciation of the master with those of the student. Many language laboratories today are wired so that the instructor may listen through wires and earphones to any student as he records and may cut in to correct him, if necessary, without disturbing the remainder of the students working in the laboratory.

The Language Laboratory at Indiana State Teachers College has been the outgrowth of thinking extending over about a two-year period, starting with the use of record players and tape recorders by the Head of the Language Department. Then a simple Language Laboratory was set up by the Audio-Visual Center consisting of sixteen earphones wired to a table so that either a record player or a tape recorder on the table could be listened to by the students. This was used and proved satisfactory for small groups, and such a simple start gave instructors a chance to apply laboratory teaching techniques on a small scale.



A Student Using the Language Laboratory Equipment



Audio-Visual Director Checks Operation of Equipment.

The plans for the present Language Laboratory were drawn jointly by an electronics engineer in the City of Terre Haute and the author. The plans were drawn up in such a way that the Language Laboratory could do the things stated previously in this article. Items which were considered rather important in the planning were:

a. That the tape recorder should be dual-track (sometimes called binaural) so that the instructor's voice could appear on one track and the student's repetitions or answers on the other track. This type of tape recorder costs slightly more but gives the teacher a greater advantage over using a single track recorder and having to leave almost exactly the proper length of space for the student's speech.

b. A monitoring device so that the teacher may listen to the students at any time.

c. Acoustical treatment of the booths and the room in such a way that one student speaking would not disturb others excessively.

Plans and specifications were drawn up and requests were put out for bids. The successful bidder was able to get the work done and installed ready to operate early in the spring of 1957. Some readjustments of the equipment have been found necessary and proba-

bly some readjustments in the thinking and teaching of the instructors using the equipment has resulted.

The installation of a traverse rod drape over the windows in the laboratory serves as an acoustical treatment and darkens the room for slides or films. A motion picture screen is, of course, hung on the front wall of the laboratory and acoustical tile covers the ceiling and the walls down to the table top level.

Results from the use of this equipment which are already apparent but which have not been studied by objective means are:

a. An increased interest in language study by students already in the courses and by students who observed some of the work and hear about it but who are not in the classes.

b. All of the instructors concerned agree that the language teaching has been much more effective with the laboratory than before the use of the laboratory.

Experience with the laboratory shows that there are some simpler ways of setting up a laboratory and, even though this particular one is not as complicated as most laboratories observed, it was built at what might be considered a very reasonable cost. There are ways of constructing a lab-

oratory using unit equipment and the simpler wiring systems strung around the wall, so that the cost of a complete language laboratory of twenty places at the present time could be brought somewhere near five thousand dollars for the equipment and apparatus alone.

The author visited the Georgetown University Laboratory at Georgetown University in Washington, D.C., the Purdue University Laboratory at Lafayette, Indiana, and the School of Languages and Linguistics of Georgetown University in Washington, D.C., and gained ideas at each place. Anyone considering the installation of a language laboratory is urged to visit at least two or three installations and talk with the instructor concerned before starting plans.

In language teaching one of the simplest aids used by nearly all instructors is records consisting of speech, stories, songs, etc., done usually by someone who speaks with the native accent. The next improvement would be the use of tapes and listening to recording tapes. The next improvement would be the use of 2" x 2" slide pictures with a tape narration going along with them so that the students could see Paris while the voice on the tape was talking about Paris. Motion picture films which show scenes and stories of other lands and have a sound track in the language being studied are easily available. Short-wave radios may be used to pick up broadcasts in Spanish, French, or almost any language. These short-wave broadcasts may be placed on tape to be played back to a class later on. This type of recording from short-wave radio might require the instructor or someone to stay up late at night to obtain the programs.

A slightly more complicated but very effective method of language study and training would be the use of one or more tape recorders in a small room off the language room where students could record their translations from a book or could record their answers to a record. This simple type of language laboratory might be sufficient for some small high schools or colleges.

At the end of this article is a listing of booklets, pamphlets, and magazines on language teaching. It is highly recommended that instructors interested in going further send for some of these, as they represent some of the better thinking on the subject. Most successful language teachers agree that students who enjoy studying language are the students who progress rapidly. Some techniques which increase enjoyment are: singing songs in the classroom using the language; exchanging tapes of speech, songs, or stories with people in other lands; seeing exhibits such as the ones maintained in embassies or in the larger cities; or exchanging letters with people in other countries.

HI-FI TAPE RECORDING Magazine for March, 1957, contains these suggestions: on page 11 is a Teen Tape Department where young people may learn how to exchange tapes with teenagers of other lands; on page 19 is a discussion of a radio program and radio stations which operates largely through tapes made by the students; and on page 28 is a column entitled, "Tape

Club News", which tells about a world-wide tape group of people in school and how they exchange tapes just for fun. It also tells about how Dr. Paul Ronning, of Brookings, Oregon, has traveled forty thousand miles visiting tape club members all over the world. What a world of possibilities for hearing French, German, or Spanish from other teen-agers.

References and helpful booklets and pamphlets on language teaching with special equipment.

Magazines

1. AUDIO-VISUAL INSTRUCTION, Volume 1, Issue, October, 1956—LANGUAGE, ROOT OF COMMUNICATION, Donald L. Lloyd, pp. 140-142.
2. TAPE RECORDING TECHNIQUES FOR LANGUAGE LABORATORIES, Edwin Brenes and George E. Smith—A reprint obtainable from Mr. Brenes at Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana.
From HISPANIA, Volume XXXVIII, No. 3, September, 1955.

Booklets

A LANGUAGE LABORATORY HANDBOOK

Douglas L. Heath, Language Training Aids, Silver Springs, Maryland. \$1.00.

TAPE EXCHANGE DIRECTORY

Ruth Y. Terry

EDUCATIONAL SCREEN AND AUDIO-VISUAL GUIDE, Volume 36, No. 4, April, 1957. p. 27.

STUDY ON MODERN LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

P. E. King, Magnetic Recording Industries, 11 East Sixteenth St., New York 3, N. Y.

METHODS AND EQUIPMENT FOR THE LABORATORY

Fernard L. Marty, Box 54, Middlebury, Vermont, Audio-Visual Publications, p. 84.

Catalogue of Lending Collection, 1956-1957

SOCIETY FOR FREE AMERICAN CULTURAL SERVICES AND EDUCATIONAL AID

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(not counting the "Whit" compounds); Red 154; Black 75; Silver and Blue 64 places, each; Auburn 26; Gold 19; Yellow 13. You can find these all over the map. Somewhat later they named places for their farm products, and later for their industrial products: coal, iron, cherry, sugar (for the tree), orange, clover, mineral, mine, carbon, marble, trout, cotton, lead, fish, plum, etc. Many places they named for the prevalent trees: in decreasing order as follows: Oak - Pine - Piney - Cedar - Ash - Maple - Linden (also its Lym and Lin compounds) - Willow - Elm - Walnut - Beech - Hickory - Locust - Redwood - Sycamore - Chestnut - Birch.

Or they named places for locally prominent animals (in decreasing order): Elk - Eagle - Beaver - Deer - Buffalo - Wolf - Bear - Fox. Also many bird names were bestowed.

Also many Indian names were bestowed. Especially after the Indian was

The Story of Indiana Place-Names

C. H. HANDSCHIN

Professor Emeritus, Miami University
Oxford, Ohio

Our place names tell the epic of our progressive westward pioneering; of the evolution of democratic ideas; of change from the British fashion of naming places for royalty and nobility to naming them for our heroes and heroines, wives, daughters, and first settlers. Thus we named 41 places for Washington (and compounds); 42 for Madison; 23 for Jefferson; 25 each for Boone and Webster; 20 for Fulton; 15 for Penn. And we named 350 places—especially in our Spanish sections for Saints (San, Santa), and 43 for church and compounds of church. And religious and biblical names are scattered all over our maps. Our settlers named places as

they saw them: 322 Mount compounds; and Glen - Dale - Valley - Forest - Lakes - Mill-View compounds; Hills - Bluffs - Cliffs - Buttes - Prospects - Rocks - Water - River - Rios - (Spanish for river), Ports - Harbors - Highlands - Spring - Bridge - Camp - Point - Grove - Plaines - Deltas - Cascades - Falls - Flats - Island - Ocean - Crest - Prairies and compounds of these. See how many of these are found in your state.

And then there are the features of the landscape, as the first settlers saw them: Sunny - Clear - Blooming - Shade - Shady - compounds. And of color they were especially fond, in decreasing order, as follows: Green 177; White 154;

no longer a foe, but a neighbor and friend, we used many more of them, especially after our great poets had taken an interest in the Indians and romanticized them.

What Indiana cities of 5000 up population are named for, 1. location; 2. natural features as the settlers saw these; 3. natural phenomena close by or in view; 4. color; 5. products of farm or industry, for animals found there in abundance; 6. women? See following list of names of these cities for your answers.

There are numerous smaller places bearing women's names in Indiana; a host of women were in the families for which places in Indiana were named. Naming places for women is quite a large chapter. We did name some places for goddesses: Amalthea, Aurora, Minerva, Juno, Venus, Helen of Troy, the daughter of Jupiter who caused a ten years' war. Fortunately there are other places named for good Helens and Saint Helens. In fact the most popular names are those of the women saints, who choose the hard and narrow way and are remembered for their good deeds, performed in silence and seclusion, not as the goddesses for their uproarious conduct performed in full view of all. The next most populous class of names are those of wives, and there is a small army of them: Alma, Anna, Ann (Arbor), Anniston (Alabama), Anns(ville), Augusta, Bellville, Beatrice, Cora(ropolis), Elizabeth, Ellen, Emma to mention only a few of them, not even finishing those beginning with "E", and not mentioning all the others down to the letter "Z".—Once in a blue moon a husband shared a name with his wife, for example Donora (Pennsylvania) for William Donner and his wife Nora. Generally he just clapped his own name down on a place. Also occasionally his daughter's, for example, in Alma, Nebraska; Angelica, New York; Aurora (a township in Ohio); Leona, Wisconsin; Hallie, Wisconsin, etc. Some women were chosen names for specific achievements, for example, Dixmont, Pennsylvania for Dorothy Dix, a philanthropist; Abbie (now Abie), Wisconsin for Abbie Stevens, a pioneer merchant. Occasionally a mother had a

place named for her, which seems eminently proper, for example, Marysville, Montana, by her son Theodore Cruse, and Miranda, South Dakota for the mother of the President of the Chicago and Northwestern Railroad. Still more surprising it is when a man names a place for his mother-in-law as in the case of Alden, New York. Sometimes a wife took the matter in hand herself and named a place for herself as in case of Afton, Iowa; and Gaba, Kansas, which a wife named for her old hometown in Illinois; and so on and on. Even Aunt Jane was immortalized in Tia Juana, California, Spanish for Aunt Jane, a bordertown between California and Mexico. Perhaps we shouldn't even have mentioned her here at all since her only claim to public notice is because of her hilarious bibulous habits.

The most popular of women Place-Names in the United States are in this order: Ann, Mary, Florence, Elizabeth, Helen(a). But there is scarcely a feminine font-name that does not appear as a Place-Name in the United States. This is significant and **is not found in older countries**.

The great influences toward bestowing Indian names in Indiana were the fact that Indiana **bought** the land from the Indians and their magnanimity led them to name their state for the Indians. Besides, the writings of the poets who idealized the Indian, served in Indiana to develop understanding for and appreciation of the Indians. **And very important: relations to the Indians continued to be good.**

Indian Place-Names were retained best by the lesser political subdivisions and other natural phenomena. Henry Gannett, "Origin of Certain Place-Names in the United States," **Geological Survey Bulletins**, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. counted Indian Place-Names as 28% of all our Place-Names. But he included the names of villages, creeks, stations, post offices, capes, gulches, passes, peaks, bayous, parishes, townships, boroughs, in fact every place for which he found the necessary data. As we indicated, Indian names clung to these phenomena best. Also Indian names were favored for our counties,

especially in New England and in the North Central States where they constitute about 18% of all the county names.

Place-Name study fosters patriotism and state and local pride because it portrays the epic of the United States; the history and the development of our ideals: political, religious, and social, nationally, and in every state of the Union. In the case of Indiana its name tells us of the eminent fairness of Indiana's dealings with the Indians.

Besides, just as a personal font and surname is a constant remainder and ideal which in case of the font name often the parents had in mind when they bestowed the font name, so is a Place-Name; for example, John is the most popular of all font names. The Johns of the Bible were very great and good men, whether it be John the Bap-Baptist, John the Beloved Disciple, or any of the dozens of Biblical Johns, or one of the hundreds of later Saint Johns, or the great Johns of secular history, this name is a life-long high ideal **to live to, to be proud of, and so is a real force and satisfaction** in the namees entire life. Moreover, people in all ages and countries said and believed in the proverb 'Good name, good omen" and **that poor names are ominous**— Just so with a place! Think what the kids would do to kids from a place called Backhouse, Nightpot, Wishwashy! Or if the kids own name were Snotty, Not-much, Bighead, or Poorhouse? Names are my special study and I often counsel people to change a disparaging or belittling, mean, or low name. Anyone can invent just a slight change, say of one letter, in the spelling of an objectionable name and so rid it of its stigma. But if a more complete change of name is necessary I send them to a judge to get it made legal.

Here follows a list of Indiana cities of 5000 and up population:
Alexandria named for an Alexander family of early settlers.
Alton named for the son of Rufus Eastman, chief founder of the city.
Anderson is the English translation of an Indian chief's name..

- Angola, probably a synthetic name on the pattern of Indianola.
- Auburn named for Auburn, New York. Four other Auburns in the United States, named for the village in Goldsmith's "The Deserted Village."
- Bedford (Indiana, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania and Virginia) named for the Duke of Bedford in the case of Bedford, Pennsylvania, the rest by cross-transfer.
- Bloomington named for Philip Bloom, early settler.
- Bluffton, named for the high local bluffs.
- Boonville named for Daniel Boone.
- Brazil named for Brazil, South America.
- Clarksville for General George Rogers Clark.
- Clinton for Governor George Clinton of New York; also four other Clintons in Illinois, Iowa, Massachusetts, Missouri, directly or indirectly.
- Columbus, for Christopher Columbus; also four others in Georgia, Mississippi, Nebraska, Ohio.
- Connorsville for John Connor, who laid out the townsite.
- Crawfordsville for W. H. Crawford, United States Secretary of State under President Monroe.
- Crown Point for its high location at the juncture of highways.
- Decatur for Commander Stephen Decatur; also three others in Alabama, Georgia, and Illinois.
- East Chicago for Chicago which is Indian for "wild onion place".
- East Gary for Gary, Indiana.
- Elkhart for the river on which it is located.
- Elwood, first named Duck Creek, later Quincy, but since there was a Quincy in Illinois, it was renamed Elwood for the son of Jesse Frazier.
- Evansville for General Robert Evans, who plotted it.
- Fort Wayne, for General Anthony Wayne.
- Frankfort for Frankfort, Kentucky and this for an earlier pioneer, killed by Indians.
- Franklin, for Benjamin Franklin, as were Franklins in Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Pennsylvania.
- Gary for Judge Gary of United States Steel Corporation.
- Goshen, Biblical name of the land allotted to Israel in Egypt, a land of plenty and immunity from evils.
- Greencastle for Greencastle, Ireland.
- Greenfield is descriptive of locale.
- Greensburg for Greensburg, Pennsylvania, by Mrs. Hendricks.
- Hammond for Abram Hammond, once Governor of Indiana.
- Hartford City, for Hartford, Connecticut, and this for Hertford, England. Highland is descriptive of locale.
- Hobart for Hobart Earle, brother of George Earle, who promoted this locality.
- Huntington for Samuel Huntington, a signer of the Declaration of Independence.
- Indianapolis means Indian city, named for the state, and this because of the lands bought from the Indians.
- Jasper for Sgt. William Jasper of Fort Moultrie fame.
- Jeffersonville for President Thomas Jefferson, who is said also to have made the plan of the town.
- Kendalville for Amos Kendall, Postmaster General under President Jackson.
- Kokomo is Indian for "your grandmother".
- Lafayette for Lafayette, French Marquis, who fought for the United States in the Revolution.
- La Porte, French for 'the gate', probably "a clearing between forests" says an informant.
- Lebanon a Biblical name for the Mountain in Palestine, as were also: Lebanon in New Hampshire and Pennsylvania.
- Linton for "Mr. Linton a citizen of Terre Haute, Indiana".
- Logansport for Captain Logan, a Shawnee Indian chief.
- Madison for President James Madison; as were Madisons in New Jersey, Illinois, and Wisconsin.
- Marion for General Francis Marion; as were also Marions in Illinois, Ohio and Iowa.
- Martinsville for John Martin, oldest of the locating commissioners.
- Michigan City for Lake Michigan, Indian for "big lake" or "fishing place".
- Mishawaka for an Indian chief. It means "red earth" or "swift water."
- Mount Vernon for George Washington's estate on the Potomac.
- Muncie for Indian chief Munsee, with spelling changed.
- New Albany, Albany means white land, for Albany, New York, and this for Duke of York, who later became James II of England.
- Newcastle for New Castle, England, or for the Duke of Newcastle.
- Noblesville for Noah Noble, early Governor of Indiana.
- Peru for Peru, New York, and this for Peru, South America.
- Plymouth for Plymouth, England by our Puritans, who had received hospitality in Plymouth, England. Our other Plymouths are in Connecticut, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Michigan.
- Portland for Portland, Maine.
- Princeton for the Honorable William Prince, and Princeton, New Jersey for the Prince of Wales.
- Richmond for Richmond, Virginia as were Richmonds in New York, California, Kentucky. Means "rich hill."
- Rushville for Dr. Benjamin Rush.
- Seymour for a Mr. Seymour, an engineer.
- Shelbyville for Colonel Issac Shelby, Revolutionary War hero, as were Shelbyville, Tennessee and Shelby, Ohio.
- South Bend, for the bend here in the St. Joseph River.
- Speedway for the famous racetrack here.
- Sullivan for Daniel Sullivan killed by Indians while bearing a message from Captain Clark, after fall of Vincennes.
- Tell City for William Tell, Swiss hero.

Terre Haute is French for "high land" named by early French, for its location high on river bank.

Tipton for General John Tipton.

Valparaiso is Spanish for "paradise valley" probably is descriptive—by some intellectual among early settlers.

Vincennes for the local fort built by Sieur Vincennes, early French soldier.

Wabash is Indian for "white water". There is also a Whitewater River in Indiana, a translation of Wabash.

Warsaw for Warsaw, Poland, directly or indirectly.

Washington for George Washington; as are also those in District of Columbia, Missouri, North Carolina, Ohio and Pennsylvania.

West Lafayette for Lafayette, Indiana; which see.

Whiting was first "Whiting's Crossing".

When the Standard Oil Corporation moved in here the "s" was dropped.

Winchester for Winchester, England, directly or indirectly, as were also those in Virginia, Mississippi, Kentucky; Old English for "lovetown" or "smiletown".

The Physically Handicapped: Six Years of Progress

DEWEY J. MOORE

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A special class for physically handicapped children, operated by Indiana State Teachers College since 1950 and supervised by the Division of Special Education, has served a total of 46 children during its six years of operation. The purpose of this discussion is twofold: to present some of the procedures used to admit children to the class and to describe some of the children who have attended. In short, this is a discussion of a typical facility for physically handicapped children in a city with a pupil population of approximately 10,000.

Every physically handicapped child who lives in the Terre Haute-Vigo County area is eligible for admittance if the child is judged capable of profiting from the services provided. Before a child is enrolled in the class, he is given a physical examination by his physician. The recommendations of the physician are followed carefully while the child is participating in the program. A new appraisal of the child's physical condition is conducted periodically, and the physician certifies whether continued attendance in the special class would be beneficial to the health of the child.

Experience has shown that a complete psychological examination is important in planning for the physically handicapped. Such an examination usually in-

cludes tests of mental ability, school achievement, special aptitudes, speech, hearing, visual efficiency, and personal adjustment. In most instances, a child who is accepted into the class receives an individual test of intelligence as part of the estimate of his mental ability. The Revised Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children are used almost exclusively for this purpose. A child must be considered educable before he may be enrolled in the class. No children are admitted whose intelligence quotients are extremely low, or whose combined psychological and irremediable physical defects are so severe as to make impossible the learning of academic subjects.

The class is conducted in the Laboratory School on the campus of Indiana State Teachers College. Two rooms, containing 736 and 391 square feet of floor area, constitute the space. Between the two rooms is an area containing storage and toilet facilities. The larger of the rooms is used primarily for academic and craft activities. The remainder of the space is utilized by part-time speech and physical therapists. Furniture in the room occasionally is modified to accommodate the specific handicaps of the children.

The services of a registered physical

therapist are available daily. Speech and hearing therapy, an important adjunct to any program for the physically handicapped, is given to those children needing it.

An important function of the Division of Special Education is to prepare college students who will teach in many areas of special education. This special class provides an excellent setting in which student teachers may work with many kinds of handicapped children.

Some of the children who attend the class have "unseen" handicaps. For example, children suffering from heart damage due to the after-effects of rheumatic fever often appear normal. The fact that their handicap is hidden does not obviate their need for a school program temporarily modified to protect them from further heart damage. Approximately one-third of the children included in this study attended the special class because their physical activities were restricted by the results of rheumatic fever.

Children with cerebral palsy, an orthopedic condition caused by brain injury, have constituted 20 per cent of the total enrollment. These children usually have difficulty in a regular school because of their specific mental and physical disorders.

Although the Salk vaccine may eventually decrease the number of children handicapped by polio, it is likely that, for the next several years, special educational provisions will be needed for this group on about the same basis as in the past. The post-polio group comprised 15 per cent of the total enrollment.

Bone and joint conditions such as osteomyelitis, congenital dislocated hip, and tuberculosis of the bone have accounted for 15 per cent of all cases.

The remaining 15 per cent of the children have been handicapped by a variety of illnesses. Muscular dystrophy, epilepsy, blood disorders, and many other handicapping conditions appear with regular frequency.

TABLE I: CAUSE FOR PLACEMENT

	Number	Per cent
Post rheumatic fever	16	35
Cerebral palsy	9	20
Post polio	7	15
Bone and joint conditions	7	15
Miscellaneous	7	15
Totals	46	100

The median age at which the children entered the class was 9.3 years, with a mean age of 9.5 years, and a standard deviation of 2.5 years.

TABLE II: AGE AT ENTRANCE

	Years
Median	9.3
Mean	9.5
Standard deviation	2.5

Nearly two-thirds of the children left the class because their physical condition had improved sufficiently to permit them to enter regular school. Changes in residence from the immediate Terre Haute area accounted for 20 per cent of the children leaving. Some of the class members, about 12 per cent, left to enter regular high school. Six per cent of the children, who had been admitted on a trial basis, were dismissed when it became evident, after several months of observation, that they would be able to make very little academic or social progress.

Eleven children are currently enrolled in the class.

TABLE III: REASON FOR LEAVING

	Number	Percent
Physical improvement	22	62
Moved out of area	7	20
Entered high school	4	12
Lack of progress	2	6
Totals	35	100

The group has been essentially low-average in intelligence. The median IQ was found to be 90; the mean was .88, with a standard deviation of 17.06.

The scholastic progress made by physically handicapped children depends to a great extent on their physical condition as well as their psychological make-up. A comparison between the handicapped group and physically normal children in terms of school achievement is very difficult. In most instances, however, it has been found that, physically handicapped children, as a group, make good academic progress. The majority of them keep their achievement at a high level and are able to return to the classroom when their physical condition improves.

The college can be justifiably proud of the services it offers to physically handicapped children. Few state teachers' colleges can equal the program and facilities offered by Indiana State.

Summary Report of the Eighth Annual Conference for Supervising Teachers

Indiana State Teachers College

March 1, 1957

The annual conference for supervising teachers on the campus of Indiana State Teachers College has greatly facilitated the functioning of the student teaching program for all concerned. In this issue of the Journal we present a summary of the Eighth Annual Conference which was held on March 1, 1957.

Editor's Note

Dr. Sharpe presided at the opening session and extended President Holmstedt's greetings. The general session was devoted to an over-view of the entire training program for prospective teachers, as it is conducted at I.S.T.C. The time was shared by Drs. Sharpe,

Shipla, Lantz, Brewer, and Tanruther of the Division of Teaching, and Dr. Jamison, chairman of the Department of Education. Following are brief excerpts of their comments:

Dr. Sharpe: "The Design of the Program"

Many people do not have any idea of what teacher education is, but they are opposed to it. We wish to confront them with the facts. Many people think of teacher education in terms of the old Normal School. Instead, now our modern college of teacher education is **really** a college. Here is a brief picture of teacher education at State:

In the Secondary Level, during the four years—

1/2 time is spent in areas in which students will teach (subject matter).

1/3 time is spent in general education.

1/6 time is spent in the professional sequence.

In the Elementary Level, during the four years—

1/6 time is spent in the professional education sequence.

1/2 time is spent in general education.

1/3 time is spent in professionalized subject matter with the emphasis on how to get the subject matter across to the students.

EIGHTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE FOR SUPERVISING TEACHERS
INDIANA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
STUDENT UNION BUILDING
MARCH 1, 1957

9:00 — Registration — Lobby
Coffee Hour — Ballroom
Courtesy Beta Lambda Chapter, Phi Delta Kappa

Exhibits — Lobby:
Audio Visual Center
Teaching Materials, Library
The Association for Student Teaching

9:45 — General Session — Formal Lounge

Donald M. Sharpe, presiding
Welcome: President Raleigh W. Holmstedt
"The Education of a Teacher at I.S.T.C. — A Cooperative Venture." A Symposium.
The Design of the Program — Donald M. Sharpe
The Contribution of the College — Olis Jamison
The Structure of the Seminars:
Elementary—Otto Shipla
Secondary—Ralph Lantz
The Views of Students — Wenonah Brewer
The Importance of the Supervising Teacher — Edgar M. Tanruther

Discussion

11:00 — Group Meetings by Subject Matter Field

12:30 — Luncheon — Ballroom, Student Union Building
Indiana State Woodwind Choir, director F. Lidral
Dean Richard E. Thursfield, presiding
Address — "Encouraging Creatively in Student Teaching" — Dr. Laura Zirbes, Professor Emeritus, Ohio State University.

2:30 — Adjournment of Conference

Department Supervisors and Other College Representatives will be Available for Additional Conferences following Adjournment.

Dr. Zirbes is internationally recognized as a forward looking and creative leader in the field of education. In addition to being a speaker and writer or renown, she is a recognized leader in the field of teacher education. Her recent publication in latter field include: **Teachers for Today's Schools**, and **Encouraging Creativity in Student Teaching**, published by the Association for Student Teaching.

We are much more concerned now with quality than with quantity. We are concerned not with putting in so many hours. . . we are concerned with the quality of the experience.

Five criteria for evaluating experiences in teacher education are:

1. They must be challenging.
2. They must provide for involvement.
3. They must provide for guidance and assistance.
4. They must provide for intellectualization (thinking about and evaluating experiences.)
5. They must be satisfying to the student.

Dr. Jamison: "The Contributions of the College"

We must think constantly about how to help the boys and girls whom we

are training. We must understand them and know how they grow. That task is more difficult than making a piece of complex machinery. It is our job to be constantly alert to select from all of the wisdom available so that we can bring the best to the prospective teachers. . .

Before they are ready for student teaching, it is important that they observe boys and girls in schools. Such a philosophy, we think, is important for us to hold in this business of teacher training. We try to do this job through professional courses which are designed to: (1) help us decide better how to give a child what he needs; (2) understand the child; (3) learn how to help the child.

The first course is Introduction to

Education and, while it is in the professional department, it can very well be classified as general education and professional education. Everyone should know something about education. . . We all help pay for it. . . It is the foundation stone for democracy and our way of life.

In recent years, Psychology has been worked into a sequence of two quarters. Instead of Child Psychology, General and Educational Psychology, we now have Human Growth and Development. The biggest problem is for man to understand himself.

Another course which we think is important is Philosophy of Education. This course is expected to help students gather together the loose ends of their thinking and form a beginning philosophy of their own.

Dr. Shipla: "The Structure of the Elementary Seminar"

The seminar for elementary student teachers is a new kind of experience for them. In many courses the most practical way of teaching has been the lecture method. It is also new in that the seminar is probably the biggest attempt up to this time to coordinate the student's experiences in the classroom with what he has learned in his college courses.

We emphasize professional reading, audio-visual techniques, make use of resource speakers, and require written weekly papers relating to the student's classroom experiences. Early in the course students have an opportunity to suggest some topics about which they would like to learn more.

In the weekly summary papers we try to emphasize the need for an analytical paper rather than a chronological paper. One-fourth of the time is spent in two groups in which we try to emphasize discussion related to topics that the students have been concerned with or that they have written about in their weekly paper.

Another type of activity is meeting by grade groups and making comparisons and contrasts.

The seminar should include many instructors and resource people. . . It should also include supervising teach-

ers; however, up to this time, there seems to be no practical way to include them.

We feel that the elementary seminar allows for a sharing of experiences, and allows for communication among the students and with the college. With the help of all, we hope to build some more sound pillars in the structure of the seminar.

Dr. Lantz: "The Structure of the Secondary Seminar"

If there is one word expressing the Secondary Seminar, it would be "transition." We are trying to help the students make the transition from a student who is absorbing knowledge to a teacher helping other people to learn. The most important function and foundation of interpreting these ideas that they have into what they do with students is the cooperating teacher. It is a one-to-one relationship.

In the seminar, students are likely to meet some new experiences. It is up to them to try to determine in part the direction in which they are going. Sometimes with these new experiences, their security is shaken. Not infrequently, the student has a negative reaction.

The seminar is sort of the adolescence of student teaching. It is a time when the student develops his own responsibility... He combines what he knows about his students with the work he has had in education. This includes anticipating problems, in taking an active part in the solution of problems, feeling he has to do something constructive for the school and his students. We want the student teachers to feel that when they have finished their program with us, that we want to stand by them and help whenever we can as they try to make the transition from being a student teacher to being a teacher.

Dr. Brewer: "The Views of the Students"

After the term's work has been completed, we ask the students two questions:

1. What is good about the program?

2. What things would you like to have improved?

Most frequently we receive the following replies to number 1:

- a. Most valuable things were the conferences with supervising teachers.
- b. Getting full responsibility for the class.
- c. Learning to create and hold interest of the classroom.
- d. Being allowed to use own initiative.
- e. Making own decisions.
- f. Being on my own.
- g. Being forced to take responsibility in the absence of the teacher.
- h. Actually making out grades.
- i. Learning how to plan to avoid problems.
- j. Cooperation and understanding of critic teacher.

The following were felt to be of little value:

- a.. Monitor duties.
- b. Cleaning the room and watering the plants.
- c. Observing a homeroom in which nothing was going on.
- d. Hall duty
- e. Too much passive time.
- f. Corrections before the students.

The following suggestions were made:

- a. Need to teach longer.
- b. More teaching time and less observing time.
- c. Critic teacher to clarify student teacher's responsibility.

They replied that "student teaching broke the idealistic bubble" but, concluded that student teaching was the most valuable and challenging experience in their college careers.

Dr. Tanruther: "The Importance of the Supervising Teacher"

The person who has the greatest influence upon the student teacher is the cooperating teacher. The quality and amount of the student's growth depends to a very great extent upon the cooperating teacher and to her insight into the relationship involved in the student teaching situation.

The student teacher is actually a learner as well as the child. Some of the important factors to consider are:

1. Each child is different and we must try to understand him as a person. The supervising teacher recognizes this about the student teacher also.

2. The good teacher accepts the child as he is and there is a free flow of communication between them. Likewise, the supervising teacher accepts the student teacher for what he is.

3. A good classroom teacher gives careful thought to readiness. The supervisor likewise looks for this readiness in a student teacher.

4. The effective teacher encourages pupils to plan, execute, and evaluate with the teacher. Likewise, the supervising teacher and student teacher work together on these items.

5. The teacher challenges the thinking of the group to the limit of their ability. The supervising teacher keeps his student teacher stretching toward new accomplishments.

Reports of the Group Meetings

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS

The following items were discussed informally in the Department of Business section of the Annual Conference for Supervising Teachers.

I. What can the I.S.T.C. Department of Business do to prepare its student teachers more effectively.

A. Discuss with prospective student teachers the proper teacher-student rapport which should be established. In an attempt to establish good rapport with their pupils, student teachers sometimes become **too** friendly with them. As a result, they encounter discipline problems.

B. Point out to prospective student teachers **the importance of** and **the need for** thorough planning. Some students plan haphazardly. Some students do not provide for "reserve" activities in their plans should the latter be needed.

II. What can the business education cooperating teacher do to insure a

meaningful learning experience for his student teacher?

A. Find out something about your student teacher before he comes.

B. Establish a team relationship with your student teacher.

C. Give your student a thorough orientation to the school, community, pupils, faculty, parents, facilities, policies, etc.

D. Provide a graduated series of induction experiences for your student teacher leading from directed observations, through assisting activities, through "bit-teaching" to full-time teaching.

E. Plan classroom experiences jointly with your student teacher.

F. Give your student teacher opportunities to participate in the all-school program.

G. Utilize a **continuous** evaluation process to determine the effectiveness of the student teacher **throughout** the student teaching period.

H. Be interested in the future plans of your student teacher.

I. Give your student teacher "a pat on the back" when he deserves it.

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

A round-table discussion was conducted in the English section of the Conference for Supervising Teachers. The following conclusions were reached:

1. All English teachers should affiliate with the professional organization.

2. **The English Journal** has vastly improved.

3. Administrative officials, as well as English teachers, might well read **Language Arts in the Secondary School** (a recent N.C.T.E. publication).

4. Reading, spelling, and vocabulary should be taught in **each** subject matter area and on **all levels**.

5. Voluntary reading is less on the secondary level because of the competition with T.V., extracurricular activities, and part-time jobs. Several teachers are requiring now a minimum number of books.

6. The assertion was made that the literature in some anthologies is somewhat "watered down." Their reading should be challenging.

7. There is a need for the teaching of methods courses in the areas in which a student does his practice teaching **prior to** his teaching.

DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC

The following points were discussed by a panel composed of Gertrude Meyer, Martha Pearman, and George Graesch, who served as moderator.

I. How can the teachers of music methods classes at Indiana State Teachers College better prepare the student for supervised teaching?

A. By giving student teachers additional help with preband instrument classes

B. By giving student teachers some devices for recognizing outstanding musical prospects.

C. By giving student teachers more opportunity to observe

D. By following observation with discussion if possible

E. By giving the student teacher some practical solution of the problem of making the general music class an enriching experience (especially the seventh and eighth grades)

F. By working with the student teacher so that he understands more fully that he is working with children and not a professional organization.

II. How can we assist you, the co-operating teacher?

A. Can the cooperating teacher be given a duplicate copy of the evaluation sheet of each student teacher for her files for future references?

B. Can the administration be advised that the student teachers are actually to take over some classes for the co-operating teacher, and that the co-operating teacher isn't attempting to get out of some of his responsibility?

C. Can all cooperating teachers be sent a program of the annual conference for cooperating teachers? This year some of the teachers received invitations from the departmental supervisor only.

It was the opinion of those in attendance that the committee in charge of next year's conference allow more time for departmental sessions.

DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE

These questions were discussed in the Science section:

I. What should be taught in science methods courses?

A. Students should have a familiarity with science equipment.

B. More time is required—perhaps a division into physical and biological sciences.

C. No set pattern can be taught in methods.

II. How could the subject matter course be made more practical?

A. There could be earlier teaching of bud study, etc.

B. Geography should be put in the same department in college as it is in the high school.

III. When should the student teacher take over the class?

The break-in should be gradual.

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES

A panel composed of Miss Helen Ross, Miss Jeanette Landrum, and Mr. Bill Dodson discussed the following points:

A. Are student teachers adequately prepared to teach the subjects which they are assigned to teach?

B. Student teachers may not be able to use the ideas which they have been given at school.

C. The attitude of the student teacher should be one in which he hopes to contribute to the growth of the children.

D. Student teachers should take part in as many activities as possible.

E. Student teachers need help in relating subject matter to current events.

F. College seniors might be given an opportunity to take over certain college classes before they go out to do student teaching.

G. It would be helpful if more explanation was given on the use of the evaluation sheets.

The group concluded that:

A. The college should arrange for more visits by both education and subject matter teachers.

B. The student teacher cannot be expected to make **good** plans at first.

C. Planning should be done with the aid of the supervising teacher.

D. The student teacher should be made acquainted with all the duties connected with teaching.

E. The student teacher should know the course objectives.

F. The student teacher should participate in making overall plans for the course.

G. The student teacher should learn to listen and to take notes.

H. The student teacher should have work in psychology.

I. The job of making teachers is a cooperative affair between college teachers, cooperating teachers, and student teachers.

DEPARTMENT OF SPEECH

Question: Where are our students weak?

They need to read more, so they can go beyond the text and the subject.

They need to read continuously in their own subject field and in the field of education.

They need to sense objectives, to ask what did the students get out of today's lesson, what did I intend them to get?

Students need more grammar, semantics, composition.

They need an opportunity to improvise on textual material and course of study techniques. In methods, stress more practical teaching. Learn to motivate.

They need a course in remedial work. The bright students need to be guided; the weak ones taught.

They need tact.

Social studies and Speech is not a good combination of subjects to get a job. English and Speech is the best combination to get a job.

Students who intend to teach should not specialize. They need a more generalized training in Speech. Among other subjects they need debate. (At the state Speech conference in Indianapolis in February, the same idea was stressed by a panel that discussed the question, "What do the high schools have a right to expect from Speech training in college?")

Question: How can we train our students to be better teachers

Prepare them to take criticism. Teach them emotional stability so they can hide their feelings.

Prepare them for personal questional questions high school students will ask.

Give them a varied criterion for critisising.

They should have subject matter suggestions for speeches.

They should keep up with current events.

They should practice teach longer. This might be arranged if Methods were taken during a quarter prior to their teaching. Methods should meet four times a week like other classes. If Methods were taken earlier, Seminar could meet all day like a workshop for one week before the students go out to teach and a few days after they return to campus. In this way students would get to teach a week or so longer.

Question: Where are our students strong?

Speech students are strong in personality.

They are eager to help in activities.

ELEMENTARY

The Elementary groups were divided by grade levels—Kindergarten, Grades One and Two; Grades Three and Four; and Grades Five and Six. All three groups considered the same questions and the following inferences were drawn.

Question 1. What is the supervising teacher's role in helping students become more competent in such areas as handwriting, methodology, use of materials, developing creativity, and guidance?

Handwriting

Many student teachers feel a need for preparation in handwriting and that a college course, including manuscript writing, would be helpful.

The supervising teacher should provide means for a student teacher to practice blackboard writing. During

this practice, the student should be made familiar with the writing methods used by the supervising teacher.

Methodology

The supervising teacher should encourage comparison between the student teacher's learnings in the college methods classes and in the student teaching situation. She should acquaint the teacher with a variety of methods and ideas and give particular attention to grouping and to timing.

Use of Materials

Opportunity should be provided for the student teacher to become familiar with records, and materials, and to know where materials are kept. Supervising teachers should foster the exchange of ideas, materials, and equipment. Many student teachers have materials of their own and should be encouraged to use them.

Creativity and Guidance

Creativity should be fostered, and it cannot be developed suddenly. The student teacher should be encouraged to use his own initiative rather than to imitate the supervising teacher.

The student teacher needs to be made aware that his first responsibility is to his student teaching and that outside activities may affect his efficiency. A daily schedule was suggested as a possible way to provide balance between teaching and other activities.

Question 2. What is the supervising teacher's role in evaluating the student's growth as a teacher?

A continual use of the evaluation sheet can be helpful.

Using methods suitable to the personality of the student teacher was urged.

A daily record of comments and progress of the student teacher was suggested.

The supervisor must look for the strong points as well as the weak ones.

It is profitable for student teachers to share their seminar papers with their supervising teachers.

If a student teacher is failing, he

should be told before the end of the term. If there have been earlier indications in his college career that he might not make a successful teacher, he should have been told at that time.

Supervising teachers are pleased that they no longer give letter grades. The white evaluation sheet is liked; revision of the blue sheet was recommended.

Question 3. What is the supervising teacher's role in the on-going student teaching program (conferences, roles of students, amount of teaching done by students, etc.)?

Assuming the role of teachers is a gradual process—informal help to the children, cooperative teaching with the supervising teacher, simultaneous teaching, group teaching, and, finally, full responsibility. The amount of teaching done should vary with the ability and needs of the student teacher. By the end of the term, most student teachers are able to assume full responsibility for one or several days.

Informal, on-the-spot conferences are very effective and of prime importance.

Question 4. What is the supervising teacher's role in relation with the college?

Supervising teachers appreciate visits by Division of Teaching personnel and would like them to be longer and more frequent.

Many supervising teachers would like to visit college methods classes and the seminars.

Conferences between supervising teachers and the Personnel of the Division of Teaching are very helpful, especially the three-way ones.

Conferences, such as this annual one, make closer relations between the supervising teachers and the College.

Following the luncheon at which Dean Thursfield presided, President Holmstedt spoke briefly and his remarks were concerned with the important role played by cooperating teachers in the student teaching program. Dr. Laura Zirbes then presented an address entitled, "Encouraging Cre-

atively in Student Teaching." An abstract of Dr. Zirbes' address is as follows:

Dr. Laura Zirbes:

Dr. Zirbes opened her address by describing herself as a circuit rider in education in that she is constantly on the go, traveling from one place to another.

You never know what your own future is going to be unless it is so much like your past that there is no excitement about it. There is a great challenge in adjusting, even when you have gray hair.

If I had to teach on the basis of what I was trained to teach, I wouldn't be here today. I was trained at the turn of the century, 1903—there was very little psychology around then. My critic teacher suffered a nervous breakdown and I had to train myself.

I have changed my psychology three times and am in the process of changing it again. I have been through many phases of psychology—"Rule-of-thumb psychology" — "Faculty psychology" — "Functional psychology" — Teachers College — Thorndike psychology"

It is important not just to learn what people lay out for you to learn but to think about it. Learning cannot be creative if we lay it out in specific elements and assimilate it all by rote learning. Unless you can take things and turn them around and use them for the stuff of more learning, your learning is not creative. I think every time we show a child that what he learns is resource material to learn something else from by himself, we are educating him. Otherwise, we are just stuffing him.

We older teachers have had to take the earlier training in psychology and then grow beyond it. I think those of us who have lived through the pre-scientific into the over-scientific into the reasonably-scientific into the creative period of education have really lived through several eras, and I should say that young people who are now starting should not think "we have arrived" because the end is not yet. I think there is a great hazard in teaching and a

great hazard in being a critic teacher because you get picked out because you are supposed to be good and you think you are good and you have the other person imitate you. I call that an occupational hazard. If you are that good, it would be a good idea to resign because you are really saying that teachers of the next generation should get all the ideas from the generation behind them.

Too many teachers want to be decorated for what they have done and how good they have been and have no wish to go forward. If you don't look out, you will begin to think you are good enough and that is the day you begin to go stale and begin to die because you have stopped growing. Anything we can do to keep ourselves growing and alive, even if we aren't too sure of ourselves, enables us to be better company for students. A growing supervisor is good company for a student who is also learning.

I have experienced the panic of a young person wanting to think and was told to follow a line and do exactly as someone else does. People need a chance to create their teaching selves out of what they have learned and to work so that as they go along they begin to find themselves and not just to conform to someone else's plan. That is one of the challenges which come to supervisors. Do not impose yourself and your ways on someone but help them to develop their own potential.

This business of encouraging creativity in student teaching may seem risky, but one doesn't learn to be creative if he doesn't try being creative. Conformity is not conducive to trying your wings. I do not mean that we must put a little "art" in everything. Perhaps we need to think about what we mean about creativity. Everyone is creative. I am talking about the formative ability to adjust to a situation without a precise habit beforehand. Every time you talk you are being creative, unless your conversation is made up entirely of stereotyped phrases. There are many times when we must be creative in language; once in a while we must be creative in human relations—you

make something out of your personal contacts. Every time we go into a situation we can come at it creatively or we can come at it in a sterile, habit-bound, rigid way—just doing it according to pattern. Some of us have been lifelong addicts to that kind of doing. Most of the stereotyped ways that we have are just something to lay on like a pattern that does something to our creativeness, adjustability, etc.

"Dinging" in by repetition is uncreative. Very much teaching is too instructive to let people learn by experience. We must allow children to find out many things for themselves. We need the kind of teaching that encourages children not to get all the know-hows first and then apply them, not to know all the facts first and then relate them, but to get the facts from the content and get the abstractions from the concrete by abstracting them. If we begin to take the concrete experiences and abstract on them, then we can take the next thing that comes along and infer something which is not in the book. We don't have to be taught one thing at a time and have it "dinged" in.

A great many young people are getting the concept of building on experience and we can show them how to grow on experiences, to make abstractions, etc. and show them as they teach children that way they will learn even as the lessons are going on.

The creativity that we are looking for can be marked by certain qualities. People who have a line and are supposed to color in don't become creative. They conform and stay within the line and have no freedom. They don't have much fun. They are doing "idiot's delight" (the dumber you are the more of it you can take). A lot of busy work is "idiot's delight." I am wondering whether or not that should be our main ambition. We are learning that children do surprise themselves—that they find out by trying things—that very often they need the freedom to explore in order to learn by discovery. If we don't give that freedom, they pretty soon begin to conform and lose their spontaneity. They learn **not** to express themselves. They are blocked by other people's directions, instructions and patterns. We assume that you have to know how before doing a thing—children learn by creating it. They don't start with skill. We don't learn to talk by taking talking lessons.

Some of the things we notice about creative teaching are just like those in creative learning. You have to have a situation to be purposeful, spontaneous, and personable. You have to get away from patterns. You have to think and generalize. If we are developing creativity in students, we have a chance to develop our own creativity. There is nothing quite so exciting as doing something exciting in your job. If you

want to create and help others be creative, you must let people know when they are good. This business of seeing what it is that makes a child get better, is the creative thing about teaching. We, ourselves, can be challenged to be creative. You will be creative whenever you assume that you don't have the best answer in the world and are going to find it. It is when you are stumped that you can be creative. Life is full of situations where you are stumped and have to find a way out. The way people handle themselves when they don't know the answer is much more predictive of when they get out where everything can't be predicted. Teaching is situational and has to be creative. Creatively, we even take bad situations and make them over.

These people who have the germs of creativity in their minds, finger-tips, eyes and ears—if we will only give them a chance to develop their own potentials to meet situations in which they have to find their direction and know-how and not just do it on dead-level. One reason I wouldn't stop what I am doing is because everything in what I am doing is a challenge for being creative.

Dr. Tanruther adjourned the conference with an expression of appreciation and an invitation to return next year.

Book Reviews

The Teacher As a Guidance Worker.
by Ira I. Gordon, Associate Professor of Education, Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland.. New York, N. Y. Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1957. pp. 350. Price \$4.50.

Built around the basic philosophy "that inevitably and fortunately the only person who can be continuously and continually effective as a guidance worker, is the classroom teacher," Gordon has written a challenging book. Here is a guide for an administrator who really wants to help his teachers

grow in their understanding of guidance concepts on an in-service basis.

The book is divided into three parts. Part One: Introduction. This includes The Nature of Guidance and The Scientific Approach to Understanding Human Behavior.

Part Two: Human Development Concepts. This includes the Child as a Growing Organism; Understanding Community Forces; Contributions of Peers to Self-Development; and The Child's Self.

Part Three: Implementation. This is perhaps, the most unique and valuable part of the book. The topics are: The Teacher as a Group Worker; The Teach-

er as a Counselor; and the Teacher as an Action Researcher.

In Part Three, the author states in a clear-cut, simple manner the fundamental concepts of group dynamics under such topics as Class Not a Group; The Development of the Class Into a Group; The Climate Setting Process; The Limit Setting Process; The Choice-Enabling Process; The Evaluation Process; Teaching Group Skills; The Use of Sub Groups; The Individual and the Group; and Working With Parent Groups. The other chapters in Part Three are equally challenging.

Bibliographies are excellent, recent,

extensive. A good professional library in Guidance for a school could be built from these bibliographies. In fact, such a library would be utopia for teachers who will be the most important professionally competent people doing the guidance in most schools for a long time to come.

Many practical suggestions are given so that the teacher can go into his own classroom not only inspired, but assisted in a definite way to work with his pupils from a guidance point of view.

The author has conviction growing out of rich professional training and experience. This is, indeed, a sane and practical treatment of a realistic approach to improved guidance services in every school and community.

Helen Ederle

Associate Professor of Education
Indiana State Teachers College

The Psychology of Adolescence. by Arthur T. Jersild. New York, N. Y.: The Macmillan Company, 1957. pp. 438 + xi.

Dr. Jersild, an accepted author of considerable renown in regard to advanced research in psychology, has combined in his latest work the philosophy underlying mental health advancement with the unique psychology needed in working with the adolescent. Furthermore, he would give top priority in his rationale to the development of emotional maturity among our chronologically immature—a goal infrequently given proper consideration in our secondary schools today: "...much more could be done in connection with the work of the school if we were as eager to discover ways of helping the adolescent in his emotional development as we are in pressing him to learn academic subjects."

This book can certainly be considered an addition of worth to our study of adolescence. Too many such works in the last decade have been alarmingly similar and repetitive with only the chapter numbers changed plus, perhaps, a comment or two on "sex education" and the latest survey results on the teen-age television choices.

Dr. Jersild speaks an age-old theme in a fresh new way when he states that the teacher who is to work effectively with adolescents must first have a thorough and basic "knowledge of self." Elementary? Perhaps. But how many teachers do we know working diligently and neurotically in the direction of resisting self-discovery at all cost? In particular, the author likes the term "healthy self-acceptance" as the reverse side of this coin and views this acceptance as *sine qua non* in learning to accept others.

"It is curious how eager in our culture we are to teach some things, and how we leave other things to chance. Almost every subject has been taught to the adolescent except the most important subject—the adolescent himself." Thus, renewed emphasis is placed on the offerings of such a course in our curricula. The slowly-moving trend, as indicated by recent studies, would seem to be in this direction.

The Psychology of Adolescence contains seventeen chapters, seven of which relate to emotional and social development. Chapters on physical growth and change, mental growth, and vocational development are included and are the least comprehensive and meaningful. Commercial reasons would seem to dictate to authors the inclusion of certain topics more appropriately treated separately. The bibliography is an excellent one, while certain significant Tables and Figures are included for the sake of clarity and interest.

Dr. Jersild can evoke a chuckle or a knowing smile even while we learn more concerning late adolescence: "There is an interesting footnote to the subject of guilt about sex. We usually assume that the one who feels guilty about sex regrets having done what he thinks he should not have done. But there may be guilty feelings about having left undone what might have been done."

Or, again, on the development of potential and all latent resources in the adolescent: "This does not mean that we thereby will make geniuses of them. There probably is nothing we can do in the education of an adolescent to create a genius. To most of us,

with our ordinary minds, this would be an utterly impossible assignment, and even the greatest genius probably could not make a genius out of someone else."

But emotional maturity remains the goal. True, it has many aspects, and the best of us achieve it to a high degree in but some of these aspects. Nevertheless, its true expression can be summarized in one word—Compassion. This has been Dr. Jersild's theme through the years.

Edmund A. Ford

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Education in the U. S. A. By W. Kenneth Richmond. New York, N. Y.: Philosophical Library Inc., 1956, pp. 227, \$4.50.

The author is a lecturer in education at the University of Glasgow. After visiting the United States he wrote his impressions of education in this country, supporting them by frequent quotations from numerous American writers. He recognizes the fact that each of the forty-eight states has its own system of education and he makes no attempt to describe each one. Instead, he feels that at least from the standpoint of a visitor the similarities among the various systems are far more significant than their differences. He attempts to point out for his British Compatriots "some of the tremendous forces at work beneath the surface of American Education" and of which for the most part they seem to be unaware. And he applies to education De Tocqueville's statement that "there are certain truths which the American can learn only from a stranger."

In the first chapter, entitled "Anglo-American Perspectives in Education" an attempt is made to describe and partially account for two conflicting attitudes—"on the one hand the essentially gay confidence of the New World, on the other the chastened mood of an Old World." From the standpoint of education, this conflict is considered to be largely one between Progressivism and Traditionalism, with American educa-

tion strongly inclined toward the former and British education toward the latter.

In a chapter entitled "Education in Americanism: Yesterday and Today" an effort is made, apparently for the benefit of British readers, to describe and explain the emphasis in American schools on problem solving, cooperation, the dignity of work, equality of opportunity, democracy, patriotism, and the like. Succeeding chapters treat such topics as educational administration, the teacher's place in American democracy, the elementary school, the high school, and higher education.

The author's point of view is conservative. He is somewhat restrained in his praise of either American life or American education. At times he tends to caricature rather than to describe them. He seems to be not quite convinced that it is possible or even desirable to educate the intellectually able and at the same time to raise somewhat the educational level of all. However, he admits that Britons are inconsistent if they "praise Americans for their ability to produce and at the same time affect to despise them for fostering that ability," and he says that "the days when American scholarship was forced to come hat in hand to Europe are over."

The book is written in an entertaining style and contains much for both Britons and Americans to ponder.

Byron L. Westfall
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This is Israel by Theodore Huebener and Carl Hermann Voss. New York, N. Y.: Philosophical Library, 1956, pp. 166 X \$3.75.

The subtitle, **Palestine: Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow**, is an appropriate one. The volume is well organized in eight parts. Ancient Israel, Palestine under the Moslems, The Development of Zionism, The Struggle for the Homeland, Zionism Victorious, Eretz Israel, Israel: A New Way of Life, and Israel's Struggle for Survival. The brief biographical introductions to several leaders of Zion-

ism adds to the appeal as well as to the usefulness of the volume. Theodor Herzl, an inspired leader, was most effective in the founding of the Movement. The first Zionist Congress at Basle (1897) fixed its aim on "a secured home (or homeland) in Palestine for the Jewish people" who "were a national or ethnic unity." Perhaps this unity was latent among the Jewish citizens of many modern national states. But the social, economic, and political contrasts of Czarist Russia (with recurring programs) and the tolerant liberal Western Democracies posed problems that were always recognized. So there were among the Zionist wide differences of opinion as to the merits of diplomat, political and "practical" (colonization and cultural programs) action. In fact they moved on all fronts as time and circumstances permitted. Consequently, after fifty-one years (1948) of United Zionist effort Ben-Gurion was privileged to read to the National Council the Declaration of Independence of Israel. Zionism had produced "a democratic state, a new nation, a homeland for the oppressed of all lands." "With indefatigable zeal and unquenchable enthusiasm in the face of seemingly insuperable obstacles, (the Jews) have conquered a barren, Malaria-ridden region, where formerly a few hundred thousand eked out a miserable existence and have transformed it into a fertile, productive land able to support a million or more persons in comfort."

The dreams and promises of **Israel: A New Way of Life** (Part VII) face a severe test in **Israel's Struggle for Survival** (Part VIII). Her difficulties are economic, political, ethnic, cultural, and religious. "The problems are international and external; they are national and international." Such is the role of a new, small state in a turbulent century. The authors with realistic insight discuss The Lack of Peace, Cultural and Religious Integration, The Zionist Outside Israel, The Arab Minority, Israel vs. The Arab World, Important Factors to Consider, and Concessions to Be Made. These topics as discussed (Part VIII) offer much to think about in our day. Can Zionism keep the power and unity required for the survival of their state?

Will the neighbors make terms with them and learn to apply their methods of life? What influence, if any, had Zionists upon the decision of the West as to the Suez Canal? How will the United Nations—or for that matter the United States—be affected by Israel, an island in the Arab world? This volume is well worth the reading. It is challenging.

A satisfactory reading list is offered. The one page index is inadequate.

Raymond J. Reece
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Speech Correction in the Schools. By Jon Eisenson and Mardel Ogilvie, Queens College. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1957, pp. 294, \$4.25

The authors structured this small book to meet the needs of the classroom teacher and the school speech therapist as they work together in striving to help students overcome their speech difficulties. This text presents information that will enhance their understanding of children with speech defects and provides a source of practical materials for translating their understanding into corrective practices. Likewise the book can be used by physicians, nurses, health officers, attendance officers, school administrators, members of school boards, P.T.A. organizations and parents of children with speech defects. It will enable them to comprehend the problems of the speech defective child and define the role of the school speech therapist and the classroom teacher as members of a therapeutic team.

In this age a high premium is placed on the ability to speak with ease, to articulate carefully and to use a well modulated voice. The authors make numerous suggestions for speech improvement through lessons in the art of conversation and the use of the telephone, speaking before groups, oral reading techniques, educational excursions, reading of good books and making reports on them, creative dramatics, puppetry, telling stories and choral reading.

The normal development of language is presented, and delayed or retarded

speech is carefully described. The types of voice problems and articulation disturbances are explained, examples cited and therapy suggested. Three chapters are devoted to the area of articulation as 75% of all speech defects come within this classification. Here are found tests for discovering articulation defects, a description of various kinds of articulation problems, the therapy for them, drills and exercises. The large field of stuttering is carefully discussed, theories and therapies outlined, sugges-

tions for parents, teachers and classroom procedures are given attention. Distinction is made between primary and secondary stages of stuttering. A chapter is devoted to the physical handicaps that bring with them accompanying speech disturbances such as hearing impairment, facial clefts and cerebral palsy. In each incidence the causes, classification, medical care, the speech or hearing therapy needed and the role of the parent and classroom teacher are explained.

The author's style is clear and concise, the terminology is descriptive and the book is invitingly easy to read. It has an appeal that should attract the reader with a definite problem in mind as well as the one reading for general information in the field of speech correction.

Margaret L. Rowe
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